ONTARIO

Department of Education

Courses of Study

Grade XIII

HISTORY

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COURSE OF STUDY

for

Grade XIII

in

Secondary Schools

CANADA AND THE MODERN WORLD

Introduction

The course in Grade XIII is planned to be a culmination of five years' study of history in the secondary schools. With the historical background which has been gained in Grades IX to XII, and by reason of greater maturity, students are in a position to grasp the importance of problems of their own day and to acquire judgment and skill in discussing them. The responsibilities of Canadian citizens grow in size and complexity as Canada becomes more deeply involved in world affairs. Ability to investigate and ponder national and international issues is a development that should be progressive throughout the course. To read widely and independently, to arrive at conclusions and examine them in the light of classroom discussion and debate, to experience a growing awareness of Canada's place in the modern world and his own place in Canada, these are the methods of study and the rewards for the student which outweigh the benefits that spring from a command of factual information only, and they constitute aims which the teacher should consciously seek to achieve. These aims are most likely to be achieved in those schools in which the pupils make constant use of a well selected library of historical books.

It should be remembered that clear historical thinking about the basic problems and ideas of the course depends upon a careful definition of abstract terms such as capitalism, democracy, liberalism.

Part One includes a survey of Latin America and of certain aspects of the history of the United States not previously studied but necessary to complete the essential background of Canada's international relations. It also deals with the advance of Canada to nationhood within the Commonwealth and provides a more mature treatment of the origin and nature of our constitution than was possible in earlier grades. Part Two is an examination of problems in the establishment of an international order in recent years. It builds on the World History courses of Grades XI and XII, but offers an interpretative rather than a narrative approach.

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PART ONE

THE RISE OF NATIONS IN THE AMERICAS

A.

GENERAL BACKGROUND

The Peace of Paris in 1763 marked in one sense the end of the colonial period in America. By that time the two continents had been blocked out and four types of European culture had been permanently established. Throughout the whole of South America and as far north as present-day Mexico, colonial foundations had been firmly laid for the Latin-American countries of to-day. North of Mexico colonial America was divided between Britain and France. The Seven Years' War put an end to French political power in America, but it still left the French settlements which were the origin of present-day French Canada.

The empires of colonial America present a fascinating picture of similarities and differences. Economic developments varied with geographical conditions, but in all the empires the theory of mercantilism prevailed and the colonies were considered subordinate in their interests to the mother countries. The British colonists had, however, a degree of freedom which marked them off in sharp contrast from the others. They enjoyed a measure of parliamentary government through their assemblies. Immigration was almost unrestricted and individual initiative was encouraged. Such conditions account for their vitality and rapid expansion in the first half of the eighteenth century.

The sixty years following the Seven Years' War was the era of the American revolutions. During that period the whole of America, with the exception of Canada, Nova Scotia and the West Indian islands, threw off European political control. Revolution came first in the British Empire, and the Thirteen Colonies gained their independence. They did not, however, carry Canada and Nova Scotia with them, nor did they repudiate their British background. They claimed that they rebelled in defence of their rights as British citizens, and in the state and national governments which they established after independence was achieved they preserved British institutions and ideals in forms which were adapted to American needs. The Revolution also carried British practices a step further in the direction of democracy.

The Napoleonic War and the upsurge of nationalism and democracy after 1800 brought about the Latin-American revolutions. From the Spanish and Portuguese empires came more than twenty republics which not only gained political independence, but also attempted to set up parliamentary and democratic systems with which, in contrast with the Thirteen Colonies, they had no previous experience.

In the troubled decade from 1815 to 1825 these new countries were weak and vulnerable. The interest of the United States and of Great Britain in defending them against the aggression of European despotism led to the enunciation by the United States of the Monroe Doctrine. Thus by 1823 the permanence of the American revolutions was assured.

I. The colonial situation:

   1. European colonial policies:

      (a) Mercantilism and control of commerce.

      (b) Colonial administration—a brief comparative study of the Spanish, the French and the British systems on the eve of the Seven Years' War.

   2. Survey of social and economic conditions in the colonies.

II. The era of revolutions:

   1. The revolution in the Thirteen Colonies:

      (a) Causes and significance.

      (b) The working out of the Anglo-American settlement (1783 to 1819).

   2. The Latin-American revolutions—causes and character:

      (a) Influence of the American and French revolutions and of the Napoleonic struggle upon Latin America.

      (b) Emergence of new states; European attempts to suppress nationalism and liberalism in Latin America; problem of freedom of trade with Latin America.

III. The Monroe Doctrine, 1823:

The roles of Britain and the United States; significance to the new republics—guarantee of independence.

B.

THE GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES

After the Revolution there followed some years of weakness and trouble during which the political form of the United States was crystallized in the federal constitution. This document has now served as the foundation of American political organization for more than one hundred and fifty years, though in that time it has been considerably altered by legislative and executive action, and even more by judicial interpretation. Inherent in the formation of the United States was a social revolution whose goal was social democracy. This struggle for social democracy, rising at times to explosive proportions, has been a continuous process in American history. Shortly after the acceptance of the Constitution the lines of the social struggle became more sharply drawn in the political sphere through the groups that formed around Jefferson and Hamilton. These parties also differed over states' rights and a strong national state. All the while the new country was involved in difficult and dangerous foreign relations, a state of affairs that was improved by better relations with Great Britain after 1819 and by stabilization of the

Atlantic world by means of the Monroe Doctrine. Then there followed a period of tremendous expansion of all sorts, during which social revolution took the form of Jacksonian democracy and a distinctively American culture appeared in the flowering of New England. Through it all could be heard the ominous rumblings that foretold the coming of the terrible conflict between North and South. At last the storm broke, imperilling the unity of the nation and the future of the American dream. The union was saved by the victory of the North and by the genius and statesmanship of Abraham Lincoln. The pursuit of the American ideal could go on.

After the war there followed a period of unprecedented material expansion in which for a while the vision of the ideal was obscured. The United States emerged as a world power, though she had yet to learn to play her part in the world. At last men undertook the task of realizing, in an industrialized state, the American dream. The problem came to the fore in the first decade and a half of this century; and if the struggle was for a while submerged by the immediate needs of a world war and its cruel aftermath, it was only to emerge again in a greater way during the 1930's. The striving after the American ideal goes on.

I. The new state takes form:
  1. Establishing the Constitution:
    (a) Toward national unity: the period of confederation and its unsolved problems; the need of greater federal power.
    (b) The federal Constitution: formation, character, adoption.

  2. The new state's attitude toward the world:
    (a) Neutrality: Washington's policy.
    (b) Isolation: the Monroe Doctrine—its application, 1823 to 1860.

  3. The development of the new state:
    (a) Emergence of political parties—Hamilton and Jefferson.
    (b) Territorial expansion (map study).
    (c) Economic development.
    (d) Jacksonian democracy.

  4. Problems of national unity—forces for and against unity:
    (a) Economic and cultural cleavage between North and South.
    (b) Constitutional and political issues: states' rights; Marshall and the Supreme Court.
    (c) The significance of the Civil War: to the United States; to Anglo-American relations; to Canada.

II. The United States develops national maturity:
  1. Widespread and intense industrialization: mechanization of agriculture and industry, trusts, immigration, the labour movement.
  2. Attempts to adapt the American ideal to an industrial state.
  3. American culture: its spirit and manifestation in the arts.

III. The United States becomes a world power—1860 to 1914:
  1. Imperialism—economic and territorial.
  2. Pan-Americanism.
  3. International relations.

C.

CANADA'S ADVANCE TO NATIONHOOD WITHIN THE
EMPIRE AND THE COMMONWEALTH

The growth of Canadian autonomy and nationhood has been a development from colonialism to equality within the British Commonwealth of Nations. This development has often been unconscious and indirect since it was the result of three sometimes conflicting influences—British, American and Canadian—which, while causing Canada to advance in the direction of increasing control of her own affairs, have always kept her within the British orbit.

Lord Durham's Report is a landmark in both Canadian and Empire history. Durham believed that greater self-government for Canada would counteract any movement for union with the United States, strengthen the ties with Great Britain, and make possible at a later date a union of British North America. Canadian statesmen like Baldwin, Lafontaine and Howe supported this belief. Others saw in responsible government the means of establishing democracy in Canada.

Not only in the sphere of responsible government was Canada a pioneer among colonies. Within a generation she was to adopt and to apply successfully, under exceedingly difficult conditions, a system of federal government. To the Fathers of Confederation, as well as to Durham and his associates, Canada owes a lasting debt, a debt shared by the Empire and the Commonwealth, since it was Canada's success in these two unique experiments which established faith in their practicability in other parts of the Empire and led ultimately to one of the most interesting of modern political phenomena, the British Empire-Commonwealth.

The soundness of these experiments could be determined only by the testing of the years. More and more Canada became mistress in her own house. This process was greatly accelerated by the First World War and the settlements that attended it. Finally, in 1931 Canada's new status was given legal definition in the Statute of Westminster,—that of a nation in a British Commonwealth of Nations, all members of which owed allegiance to a common Crown.

Less deliberately, but as time has proved no less definitely, a character and pattern of life has developed within the North American environment which is distinctively Canadian, not British or American, though it contains elements of both. This synthesis is revealed in the way Canadians live, in the way they conduct their political affairs, and in their literature and art. While showing some of the same elements, the older French-Canadain culture has retained its identity, thus endowing Canada with a dual character of its own.

Canada's agricultural expansion and increasing industrialization, her rise to a leading position in world trade, and her strategic global position in a world rapidly changing under the impact of a Second World War are profoundly affecting her relations with all nations.

By all these powerful influences, political, cultural, economic and geographic, Canada has been drawn into the main stream of world affairs.

I. A Canadian federation takes form within the Empire (1840 to 1867):

1. A new concept of Empire:

   (a) Economic and political forces making for disintegration within the Empire: the decay of mercantilism and the rise of free trade; unrest and rebellion in Canada before Durham.

   (b) Self-government the solution of the political and economic problem: recommendations and significance of Durham's Report; the working out of the recommendations; responsible government a reality by 1849; the influence of Canada's example upon other British colonies; the extension of political autonomy into the economic field — the real test of colonial autonomy: Canada Customs Act, 1859.

2. How Canada achieved federal union:

   (a) Problems demanding solution: geographical obstacles and lack of national feeling; holding the West; defence; trade; political deadlock in Canada.

   (b) Federal union — the solution: the statesmanship of the Fathers of Confederation; the attitude of the British Government; the British North America Act; constitutional compromises necessitated by French-Canadian feeling and by loyalty to the British connection; comparison of the governments of Canada and the United States.

II. Canada, a self-governing Dominion (1867 to 1914):

1. Expansion of the Dominion:

   (a) "From sea to sea": territorial growth and political organization.

   (b) Transportation, population, economic development.

2. Development of political democracy: suffrage, electoral reforms.

3. Progress toward autonomy: increasing control of economic affairs and changing imperial relations; e.g., Washington Treaty, Boer War, reciprocity negotiations, Imperial Conferences.

III. Canada a nation—within the Commonwealth.

1. Autonomy exercised in the First World War; nationhood recognized by membership in the Peace Conference and in the League of Nations.

2. Assertion of the new position of Canada to 1923: Chanak episode; Halibut Treaty.

3. Definition of the new position of Canada: Conference of 1926; Statute of Westminster.

4. Character of the British Empire-Commonwealth: gradual decentralization of the Empire; problems of Imperial collaboration.

5. Canada's dual national culture.

PART TWO

PROBLEMS OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

About the beginning of the twentieth century, man entered a new era in World history. During the past two centuries the advance of science had made possible the establishment of an industrialized society, and, by spanning the vast spaces of continents and oceans as never before, had brought about the rapid and continuous spread of new inventions and ideas to peoples in all parts of the world. The interest of common men in these new ways of living and thinking found expression in mass movements and popular organizations everywhere. No field of life was left unaffected, political or economic, social or cultural. One by one the governments of all countries, influenced by mounting demands for change and reform, initiated programmes of domestic legislation designed to bring their countries into line with the needs of the new world. In the sphere of relations among nations, measures were taken for the promotion of international conciliation and co-operation. Behind all these changes was the vision of a humane and rational way of life, whose origins lay far back in history, but which now in the twentieth century entered upon a democratic phase, making this the era of the common man.

Side by side, however, with these manifestations of the appearance of a more humane order in the world were signs of an equally rapid growth of disruptive forces in world politics and society. The reorganization of political life on a national basis, a process that began in Europe and spread throughout the world, revealed unexpected weaknesses alongside the values of the nation-state. Hence, intense and bitter nationalism became one of the most serious problems with which modern man has to cope. Much of the best of Western culture was carried abroad to other peoples by the expanding European states but, unhappily, at the same time, political and economic rivalries amongst these same states, in a world where there was as yet no effective control of international relations, led to steadily increasing international friction. The reappearance of autocracy in certain important states greatly intensified national and international conflicts by giving them an ideological hue. Out of these rivalries and differences in ideals came a struggle for balance of power that divided Europe into two armed camps and ended in the crash of the First World War.

This war, which finally engulfed the world, was a new type of war made possible by science and industrialization, a technological war that required the mobilization of the whole resources, both human and material, of every participating nation as no previous conflict had ever done. In such a war it was becoming difficult to draw a distinction between soldier and civilian. Four years of the titanic struggle bequeathed bewildering problems to the makers of peace. Germany and her allies were vanquished, but Europe and much of the world had to be restabilized, and a new and better basis for international relations had to be devised.

For a decade and more after the end of the war, forward-looking men pinned great hopes for a better world upon the working of the new League of Nations and the associated international organizations. The development of the Commonwealth within the British family of nations was itself a novel and highly significant attempt to meet the political needs of a nationalized world. In Europe and elsewhere the wider appli-

cation of the principle of national self-determination was likewise regarded as a marked advance towards a more rational world in terms of political freedom.

Many men felt that the basis for a lasting peace and a better world must be found in more satisfactory solutions of the social and economic problems raised by the nature of modern society quite as much as by new political frameworks, national or international. Indeed, as men thought more about these great problems, the more clearly did they see that there was no way of dividing the various aspects of these problems from one another. Political, economic, and social questions must be resolved together. Increasingly it became evident that in an industrialized world, where the common man was ever more conscious of his importance, no country or government could escape the political necessity of trying to cope with demands for social change. Thus the social legislation in Great Britain, in Canada and other nations of the Commonwealth, the New Deal in the United States, and the Popular Front in France were all characteristic of the efforts in democratic countries to meet these demands. In authoritarian states like Germany, Italy and Russia, similar problems were dealt with in terms of rigid, dictatorial regimentation.

By the mid-1930's it was becoming clear that neither world stabilization nor international peace had been secured. Exacerbated by the pressures of the world depression and the uncertain international political situation, extreme nationalism once more reared its ugly head. If no part of the world quite escaped the taint, the most dangerous forms were to be found in authoritarian Germany, Italy, and Japan, where intense nationalism rapidly gave birth to new imperial dreams. These new bids for empire, coupled with unsolved social, economic, and political problems in all parts of the world, brought the world once again to the brink of war. In 1939 began the second holocaust of the twentieth century.

Far more truly global than the War of 1914-1918, the fighting in the Second World War penetrated every quarter of the earth. Even more noteworthy was the total character of the war. Here was really total war, a conflict of nations in arms, of men, women and children, where the distinction between civilian and soldier, especially in those countries that suffered aerial bombing, was completely obliterated. Once more there was a strongly ideological aspect to the struggle, of democracy versus dictatorship, but this issue was confused by the association of democratic and non-democratic countries in the opposition to Germany and Japan.

When the fighting ceased in 1945, and men were again faced with the problem of re-establishing peace and order in the world, this division of views amongst the victors became of crucial importance. For after the war it became evident that Russia and Communism represented a totalitarian point of view quite as much as Nazi Germany had done. To this fact more than to any other has been due the incomplete nature of the peace settlements and the continuing instability of international affairs.

Another very disturbing factor in the present world has been the dramatic spread of the idea of national self-determination to the peoples of Asia and Africa, accompanied by insistent demands for social change. These peoples, thanks partly to European leadership, partly to European example have now caught a glimpse of the ideal of a better world which has so stirred the nations of Europe and America for the past 150 years, and they are determined to make it their own, to have their part in it.

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Their efforts to do so are upsetting all traditional political, social, and economic organization in their regions, thus contributing to the creation of a very fluid state of affairs in international relations.

As we enter the second half of our twentieth century it will be noted that we live in one of the most challenging periods in all history. No such era is a comfortable one, and our own is particularly uncomfortable because of its menace of atomic war added to other reasons for insecurity, but it is tremendously exciting, and an age of vast opportunities. Never before have all the peoples of the world been involved in great changes all together. Our old world drops away; we move ahead to a new, a world of one humankind.

In such a light must be seen the vast importance of men's endeavors to bring again peace, order, and security into the world, through the United Nations, through all the experiments in mutual aid and security, through the many programmes for social reform. So seen the difficulties become possibilities; the door is open to the greatest efforts and achievements.

In this new, exciting and challenging world Canada emerges as a significant power, one whose voice will be heard with respect, a nation whose influence in co-operation with others can count for much.

A.

The World Faced with New Problems of State and Society
(the dawn of the twentieth century—an introductory survey)

I. Man moves toward a new world:

   1. The influence of scientific research and invention; the vast expansion of industrialism; the shrinkage of the world due to changes in transportation and communication.

   2. The organization of the world on a national basis.

   3. The rise of the common man and new demands upon governments.

   4. The vision of a humane and rational way of life.

II. Problems of a world in transition, to 1918:

   1. Development of intense nationalism; retarded national development in certain states; projection of national problems into international affairs.

   2. Western imperialism: the struggle for world markets and the spread of Western culture.

   3. Efforts to secure world peace: the balance-of-power principle; Hague Conferences and Hague Court.

III. The first world crisis:

   1. First World War 1914-1918: issues; a new kind of war and its implications for the future.

   2. The making of peace: contrasting aims and objectives; main features of the settlement.

B.

New Approaches to Twentieth Century Problems

I. The quest for an international order:

    1. The League of Nations: aims, organization, accomplishments, weaknesses; The World Court; International Labour Organization; International conferences.

    2. British Commonwealth of Nations: world significance of constitutional developments.

    3. National self-determination in Europe and the Near East.

II. Efforts to deal with social revolution:

    1. In democratic countries: Britain and the Commonwealth; United States and the New Deal; Popular Front in France.

    2. In authoritarian countries: National-Socialism in Germany; Fascism in Italy; Communism in Russia.

III. Resurgence of extreme nationalism—autocracy and self-sufficiency:

    1. World depression.

    2. New bids for empire: Germany, Italy, Japan.

    3. New threats to world security.

IV. The second world crisis:

    1. Second World War, 1939-45: issues, total war, character and extent.

    2. Incomplete nature of post-war settlements.

C.

The Twentieth Century Dream of a Better Life Becomes World-Wide

I. Major issues in the post-war world:

    1. Two ways of organizing society and world order: totalitarianism and democracy.

    2. Post-war expansion of Russia and the spread of communism: a new totalitarian challenge.

    3. National self-determination and the social revolution move east and south: Asians and Africans seek a part in the better life.

II. New methods of dealing with twentieth century problems:

    1. United Nations: aims, organization, accomplishments, limitations.

    2. Mutual aid and collective security: Marshall Plan, NATO, UN Technical Aid, Point Four Programme, Colombo Plan.

III. Canada emerges as a significant power in the world.

    1. Material and cultural growth.

    2. Strategic global position and contribution to international order.